

## L23 - Relativistic Cosmology: I

### Robertson-Walker Metric

Recall that, in SR, the spacetime interval is

$$ds^2 = (c dt)^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$$

so that  $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$  We could also write the interval in spherical coordinates  $(r, \theta, \phi)$ :

$$ds^2 = (cdt)^2 - (dr)^2 - (r d\theta)^2 - (r \sin \theta d\phi)^2$$

Here  $g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$

Both metrics describe flat spacetime (Minkowski), i.e., the curvature (obtained using the metric) is zero.

Recall that the presence of matter curves spacetime, producing metrics that are not flat. We studied only one, the Schwarzschild metric describing spacetime surrounding a static, uncharged point mass:

$$(ds)^2 = (c \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}} dt)^2 - \left( \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}}} \right)^2 - (r d\theta)^2 - (r \sin \theta d\phi)^2$$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

This metric is a solution to the Einstein field equations

$$G_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{with } T_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

Robertson + Walker, in the 1930s, first found the general  $g_{\mu\nu}$  in spherical coordinates for a spacetime that is homogeneous and isotropic:

$$ds^2 = (cdt)^2 - \left( \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}} \right)^2 - (r d\theta)^2 - (r \sin \theta d\phi)^2$$

Here,  $k$  is the curvature. This is the metric used to describe the Universe in GR.

### Aside: Geometric Interpretation

The spatial part of  $g_{\mu\nu}$  was inspired by non-Euclidean geometry, developed in the 19th century

The distance between 2 points on a sphere of radius  $R$  is

$$ds^2 = R^2 d\theta^2 + R^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$$

We can write this in terms of coordinates  $(r, \phi)$  in the equatorial plane.

Let  $r = R \sin \theta$

$$\rightarrow dr = R \cos \theta d\theta \rightarrow \frac{dr}{\cos \theta} = R d\theta = \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - r^2/R^2}} = \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - r^2/R^2}}$$

Thus  $ds^2 = \left( \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - r^2/R^2}} \right)^2 + r^2 d\phi^2$  in plane polar coordinates

We want to generalize the above to represent a distance in a 3D curved space, which is hard to visualize. Every 2D slice of the 3D space should be a curved, 2D space. The answer, worked out by the mathematicians, is to replace  $d\phi^2$  above by the [square of] small angular displacement in spherical coordinates that is  $\perp$  to the  $r$ -displacement:

$$d\phi^2 \rightarrow d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$$

So the metric for a 3D space w/ radius of curvature  $R$  is

$$ds^2 = \left( \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{r^2}{R^2}}} \right)^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$$

Let  $k \equiv \frac{1}{R^2}$ , the Gaussian curvature. This measures how much a vector changes if transported around a closed loop. [Rather - if you transport the vector along geodesics, by how much does the total angle turned in a closed loop differ from  $360^\circ$ ?]

If  $k=0$ , we get a flat, 3D geometry (Euclidean)

$k > 0$       closed geometry ("elliptic")       $\exists$  no parallel lines



$k < 0$       open geometry ("hyperbolic")       $\exists$  as many parallel lines



### Back to Robertson-Walker

For 2 events separated by a spacelike interval, it may be that  $\Delta t = 0$ . Then the "proper distance" between the event,

$$d\ell = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dr}{\sqrt{1-kr^2}}\right)^2 + (r d\theta)^2 + (r \sin \theta d\phi)^2}$$

may change with time, if  $k = k(t)$ . In fact, the proper distance between galaxies does change w/ time. Usually,  $d\ell$  means the proper distance at the time the galaxy emitted the light we see today.

We define a comoving radial coordinate to through  $r = R \omega$  where  $R(t)$  is a dimensionless scale factor that is unity now. The R-W metric becomes

$$ds^2 = (dt)^2 - R^2(t) \left[ \left( \frac{d\omega}{\sqrt{1-k\omega^2}} \right)^2 + (\omega d\theta)^2 + (\omega \sin \theta d\phi)^2 \right]$$

Here,  $k \equiv R^2/K$  is the curvature constant.

- > The comoving distance to a galaxy is the proper distance at the present time, when  $R=1$ , assuming the galaxy followed the Hubble flow (no peculiar velocity).

### Einstein's Equations

Einstein modeled the matter in the Universe as a perfect fluid. That is,

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & -p & 0 \\ -p & -p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -p \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for a fluid of mass density } \rho \text{ and pressure } p.$$

Using this  $T_{\mu\nu}$ , Friedman found an arbitrary eqn for  $R(t)$

$$\left[ \left( \frac{L}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 - \frac{8\pi G\rho}{3} \right] R^2 = -k^2 c^2$$

Friedmann eqn

together with

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\rho R^3) = -\frac{P}{c^2} \frac{dR^3}{dt}$$

fluid eqn

These are the same as in Newtonian cosmology. Thus -

Combining the Friedmann and acceleration equation yields, as before,

$$\frac{d^2R}{dt^2} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \left( \rho + \frac{3P}{c^2} \right) R$$

acceleration equation

### Equation of State

To find  $R(t)$ , we need the relation between  $P$  and  $\rho$ , and the functional dependence of  $\rho$  on  $R$ .

For dust,  $\rho = 0$  and  $P = \rho_0 R^3$ .

In general, write

$$\rho = w \rho c^2 \quad [\text{dust} \rightarrow w=0] \quad [\text{radiation} \rightarrow w=\frac{1}{3}]$$

The fluid eqn tells us

$$\frac{d(\rho R^3)}{dt} = -\frac{\rho}{c^2} \frac{dR^3}{dt}$$

$$d(\rho R^3) = d\rho R^3 + \rho dR^3 = -w\rho dR^3$$

$$R^3 d\rho + (1+w)\rho dR^3 = 0 \rightarrow \frac{d\rho}{\rho} + (1+w) \frac{dR^3}{R^3} = 0$$

Integrating,

$$\ln \rho + (1+w) \ln R^3 = \ln \rho + \ln R^{3(1+w)} = \text{const}, \text{ so that}$$

$$\rho R^{3(1+w)} = \text{const}$$

e.g. when radiation dominated,  
 $\rho R^4 = \text{constant}$

### Cosmological Constant

Einstein (1917) modified his field equation to

$$G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^2} T_{\mu\nu}$$

$\Lambda = \text{cosmological constant}$   
 units:  $A^{-2}$

He introduced  $\Lambda$  since, without it,  $R(t)$  could not be constant. After Hubble's 1929 discovery, he called  $\Lambda$  a huge mistake. It is now back in favor.

The Friedmann equation becomes

$$\left( \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} - \frac{1}{3} \Lambda c^2 R^2 = -k c^2$$

Friedmann

while the fluid equation is still

$$\frac{d(\rho R^3)}{dt} = -\frac{\rho}{c^2} \frac{d(R^3)}{dt}$$

fluid

Combining Friedmann and fluid yields the acceleration equation\*

$$\frac{d^2R}{dt^2} = \left[ -\frac{4\pi G}{3} \left( \rho + \frac{3P}{c^2} \right) + \frac{\Lambda c^2}{3} \right] R$$

acceleration eqn

Note that the effect of  $\Lambda$  is to speed up the acceleration of  $R$ . As we will see, this seems to be called for observationally.\* This is " $\Lambda$ CDM" cosmology.

Precise of Dark Energy  
 We may associate an equivalent density  $\rho_\Lambda$  as follows: (motivated by Friedmann)  

$$\frac{8\pi G \rho_\Lambda}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \Lambda c^2 \rightarrow \rho_\Lambda = \frac{\Lambda c^2}{8\pi G} = \text{constant}$$

Find the equivalent pressure from the fluid equation:

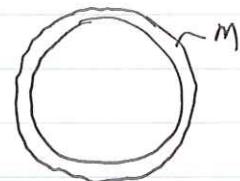
$$\rho_\Lambda \frac{dR^3}{dt} = -\frac{\rho_\Lambda}{c^2} \frac{dR^3}{dt} \rightarrow P_\Lambda = -\rho_\Lambda c^2 \quad (\omega = -1)$$

Dark energy has negative pressure!

### Equivalent Newtonian Potential

Starting with Friedmann in the form

$$\left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 - \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho R^2 - \frac{1}{3} \Lambda c^2 R^2 = -k c^2$$



multiply by  $\frac{1}{2} m \omega^2$ , where  $m$  is the mass of the Newtonian shell

$$\frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \left( \frac{dR}{dt} \right)^2 - \frac{4\pi G}{3} \rho m \omega^2 R^2 - \frac{1}{6} \Lambda c^2 m \omega^2 R^2 = -\underbrace{\frac{k}{2} c^2 m \omega^2}_E$$

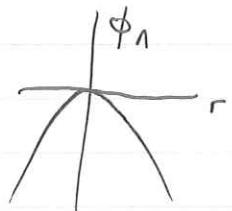
Recognizing  $\omega R = r$ , and using  $V = dr/dt$ ,

$E = \text{constant}$

$$\frac{1}{2} m v^2 - \frac{4\pi G \rho r^3}{3} m - \frac{1}{6} \Lambda c^2 m r^2 = E \quad \text{But } \frac{4\pi G \rho r^3}{3} = M_r$$

$$\frac{1}{2} m v^2 - \underbrace{\frac{GM_r m}{r}}_{\text{Newtonian potential}} - \underbrace{\frac{\Lambda c^2 r^2}{6} m}_{\text{dark energy potential}} = E$$

The potential is  $\frac{-\Lambda c^2 r^2}{6}$   
-repulsive



\* In "de Sitter model,"  $\rho = p = 0$ , and  $\Lambda \neq 0$ . Universe accelerates in an expanding fashion.  $\Lambda < 0$  is known as "anti-de Sitter space".